

NOTES OF A TOUR FROM MOSCOW TO THE CRIMEA AND ODESSA.

SECOND LETTER.

(From the Times Special Correspondent.)

OCTOBER 5.—The only thing which occurred to annoy us last night, in addition to the behaviour of the tarantasses, was the constant interruption occasioned by the trains of country carts on the road, with sleepy or careless drivers and erratic propensities. Here we are really on a highway and there ought to be a right and a left hand side, but the distinction is only to be established by the application of the whip to the population generally. The wild yells, the strange obstructions, and the savage dialogue which arose as our yamshchik trundled down on a string of those carts, were quite enough to banish sleep for the time. By the dim light of our lamps as the tarantasses jolted past them we could just catch a glimpse of the half-awakened carrier through the driving rain, and see him tugging manfully at his horses, to drag them out of our line of fire. The lot of the poor creatures who conduct the internal carrying trade of Russia is scarcely to be borne by even the most resigned of serfs, and it may be considered that they are the most miserable class of all the miserable whose fate it is to live under the wing of the double-headed eagle. It is, nevertheless, true that many serfs envy the carriers, for their life is free. That is, it frequently happens that the man who is a sort of fluctuating, uncertain property, always on the move, and shifting his position from place to place, is practically out of the reach of the superintendant, and is sometimes liberated from serfdom altogether in consideration of a certain sum paid down to his master. Through the summer heats, in winter cold the carrier drags his team on night and day, and accomplishes the endurance of every privation, and by the most stolid, ox-like persistence, the most enormous distances. The frozen lake, the great inland sea, the turbid mountain torrent, the pathless steppe, the dull, dead, straight highway,—he plods over or along them all with equal indifference, prepared for so many coopeks per pood, to carry a load as far round the world as Russia extends. Clad in a high-smelling sheepskin coat, with the skin turned outwards and "the woolly side in," a sheepskin cap, a surcoat of cotton, a red shirt, loose linen trousers, drawn over a wonderful series of cloth culottes, and great jack-boots, made of most unmistakable Russian leather, with his own little particular saint fastened round his neck, a pocket of black bread somewhere in his coat, a coopek or two for the purchase of corn whisky in his pocket, and a store of onions and cabbages for his humble meal, the carrier will start from Moscow to Tartary, Odessa, or to Tiflis with equal indifference. The cart is a light framework of wood, with sides of birch bark, and a tilt roof of coarse canvas or oilcloth stretched over hoops. The wheels are not always provided with iron tires—indeed, never in the south of Russia, and the rim is composed of pieces which form very imperfect circles, and seem very slightly connected with each other. The axles project far beyond the nave, and curious gny ropes and stays of rope springing out of these parts are connected with the shafts, and sidin holding the fabric together. The harness is of leather and rope, the horses are hardy and hairy, and will make a honest and ample livelihood by pickings of bits of wood-shavings, chittles, and weeds along the borders of the highway or on the stony steppe. The load of a cart rarely exceeds 1½ cwt., and the cost of carriage is so much increased by the greatness of the distances to be traversed that, notwithstanding the cheapness of transport considered *per se*, and so much per pood per verst, the prices are very much affected as the traveller approaches or recedes from the sea. Thus the transport of a bottle of wine from Odessa to Kharkoff adds a shilling to its price, and the rate increases in proportion with the weight rather than with the bulk of the article to be carried. These rates suffered most dreadfully during the war. They were pressed for service wherever they could be found, and forced at the point of the lance to carry loads which often proved destructive to the carts and fatal to the horses, if, indeed, the proprietors survived to witness the loss. In snowdrifts and in lakes of mud these wretched men sank to rise no more, or staggered on, fever-stricken, over the parched steppe till they lay down to die in the blazing sunshine. The number of men and animals used up in this way exceeds belief, and, although, after my personal experience of the route which they followed, I can believe what was stated to me, I dare not tax the credulity of your readers by repeating the figures to them.

I have a kind of sleepy consciousness that we changed horses several times during the night, and that an immense deal of time was generally lost in getting out the quadrupeds, waking up the yamshchiks, and fighting the postmasters, and a good deal of grumbling took place when over the purse-bearer was roused up to pay for greasing the wheels, or to give the drivers their *no vodka or na tehai* (literally "for brandy" or "for tea")—drink money. With the morning light came no very pleasant prospect; rain still fell at intervals, the country smoked with a kind of misty dew, and the poor villages of wooden houses by the roadside looked ultra uncomfortable in their environs of thick black mud. The country, however, seemed fertile, and was not destitute of marks of cultivation. The surface lay on either side of us in a series of easy undulations, studded with clumps of trees, patches of forest, and marked out into fields by hedges, which were as spiky and as rough as possible, to do battle with the coming winter. As the day drew on, the mujiks issued forth from their huts, and rubbed their eyes as the tarantasses drove past, or with the calm dignity of command superintended the operations of their wives and daughters who were busied in driving forth the pigs and cattle, drawing water from the wells, or beating up maize and rye in small mortars for the morning meal. Every one has described the mujik, whom we call "serf," but whom the polite and euphemistic Russian—in order not to hurt one's feelings, possibly—always speaks of as "peasant," and who is, according to his master's account of him possessed of many most admirable qualities—to wit, faith and charity (but, alas! no hope), patience, courage, submissiveness, loyalty, and patriotism. But they dare not for their lives say that he is honest, intelligent, sober, industrious, truthful, or moral. The Russian soldiers and "peasants" have a saying which is to this effect, "That he who sees drink, food, money, or cloth unguarded and does not take them is a fool who ought never to get the chance again," and I believe they act very much on that principle. Their faith indeed is great, but it would be difficult to draw the line which separates it from gross superstition and ignorant fanaticism; and their charity is undoubtedly, and each may well say, "miser ego miseris succurre disco." As to patience, it is sometimes a forced virtue imposed on us by the idleness and danger of impatience, and the Russian it is allied closely to an Oriental

fatalism. His courage is undoubted; it is connected with his patience, religious faith, and habits of submission, and is quite destitute of brilliancy or dash. In doggedness and indifference to suffering, in the mute endurance of pain, and in fearlessness of death the Russian is courageous, but in the higher qualities of bravery he is deficient. On his submissiveness reverts the whole structure of Russian Government as a Russian society, but I much doubt whether he is loyal; among no people have there been more plots against the Throne, more revolts, more resistance to the Sovereign till the cannon came in to decide the controversy, on the revival of which he has since kept his eye steadily fixed and very wide open. Granting that he is possessed of patriotism, we shall find, nevertheless, that it is rarely ever strong enough to resist the voice of avarice, and that his dishonesty is stronger than his love of country. Thus, one universal system of plunder and robbery of the national property took place during the late war. None too great—none too small to share in it, and the commission which is now spread over the empire inquiring into the thefts and peculations of public servants, civil and military, is said to be appalled by the disclosures which have been made, and to hesitate in continuing its labours. In spite of all that reason urges against the Russian and his morals, one cannot help pitying the poor fellow and magnifying the virtues which he undoubtedly possesses. How much or how many of his vices may arise from his profound ignorance, his hopeless mental darkness, the degradation of his position, and the form of government under which he lives, it is impossible for me to say, but their masters claim for them the possession of a spaniel's "good qualities," and too often give them a spaniel's treatment. Where is the peasant in all broad Russia who dare resent a kick, a knockdown blow, a bleeding mouth, or a black eye, received at the hands of a Government official with a Government seal on his cap? A complaint to a local magistrate for such offence would, I am assured, be regarded as a proof of some dangerous conspiracy, and a demonstration of stupendous audacity which would expose the mujik to suspicion or punishment. However, we shall see and talk more of him as we get on. It is now a quarter to eight o'clock in the morning, and we are entering the town of Serpukhoff, a town of about 7000 inhabitants, 93 versts, or 62 miles south of Moscow. The natives are obviously influenced by their proximity to the ancient capital, and have "run up" an infinity of little churches, with the usual cupolas and spires, all over the town, so that from a distance it looks like a city. I counted more than a dozen edifices of the kind, the clean white steeples and green and gilt cupolas of which presented a marked contrast to the filth and dirt of the mud, through straggling wooden houses, now and then interspersed with larger mansions of stone; and, passing a small *belai gorod*, or white city, a sort of little Kremlin, surrounded with white walls, with battlemented towers, pulled up at the inn in a square of some 300 yards broad, which was like a lake of liquid mud, with dung-hills rising island-like above the surface. Through this delectable slough there tumbled about, like porpoises in a tide-way, shoals of the wildest looking pigs, the very aspect of which was enough to drive into a state of mental aberration the strongest-minded member of the Smithfield Club. Very tall, long in the leg, and thin in the flank as greyhounds, with huge heads armed with great tusks, and garnished with ponderous ears, these animals seemed utterly unsuited for the purpose of the ham or bacon producer, and to be valuable only for their bristles, of which a mane ran down their sharp backs, and a plentiful flock depended from their scraggy sides. There was nothing very pleasant to regale any of the senses on at Serpukhoff. The inn itself was a mean-looking building, two stories high, with narrow dirty windows. The town, as far as it was visible, in spite of its minarets, cupolas, and spires, seemed the very castle and capital of indolence.

Silent groups of serfs propped up the walls of the houses a Irishman, waiting till the chapels were open, or till they were tired of resting themselves, all clad alike in sheepskin coats and long boots, the women being only distinguishable from the men by their caps, the absence of beards, and greater bulk—I had almost said stature. The townspeople splattered along the narrow and irregular *part* in those wonderful long-kirted frock coats, the notion of which they seem to have borrowed from the Jewish gaberline, and in those flat and ugly caps with huge peaks, their fondness for which is characteristic of the Russian race. Standing by the kerbstones, over the ankles in mud, were several of the most miserable "objects" of charity one could find in all the ragged realm of mendicancy, who kept up the low monotonous whining for alms, though thoroughly professional, and so irritating as to drive the hardest-hearted of men to throw his last coopek away to escape its infliction. Beggars of beggars they were indeed; old men and women, in rags of undistinguishable fabric, their heads covered with the folds of the coarse sackcloth which descended over their shoulders as a substitute for a coat, and their feet, as we could see whenever they moved, thrust into rude sandals made of birch bark, plaited together. Two prisoners in chains were, with their escort, crossing the mud of the square, almost as miserable in aspect—God knows how far they differed—as the unclean animals whom they displaced on their weary way. Their guards suffered in no respect that we could see from the common soldiers of the line. As they passed the door one of the poor beggars who was standing by the way fumbled amid her old rags, and drawing forth some small copper coin, gave it to the younger of the men, who seemed to take it without either surprise or gratitude. Indeed, one of the peculiar sights of Russia is the number of prisoners who may be seen marching through the streets of the large towns early in the morning. It is so common in Moscow that at first one might suppose the population was in a very depraved and criminal condition, but on inquiry he will find that the city is the centre of concentration for the offenders of all European Russia, and that they are collected hence from all parts and sent into Siberia. It is almost a novel, and, under any circumstances, it is no pleasing spectacle in any capital to look at parties of men laden with heavy chains, and guarded by soldiers with fixed bayonets parading through the thoroughfares, but when you recollect that these whom you see here are indeed exiles of Siberia; that they are doomed to travel on foot for many months over desert steppes and over mountains and rivers, through flood and storm, through wastes of snow and parched plains; that they will be exposed to every vicissitude of climate; that after they have performed this terrible journey and have passed such a tremendous ordeal, they begin that punishment which never ceases till the Great Comforter comes to their

release, a flood of pity overwhelms all the suggestions that reason could offer to dam the charity of the heart, and these miserable criminals for the moment are almost ennobled in your imagination by the sufferings they will have to undergo, and are considered for the moment as martyrs rather than as objects of just and condign punishment. These prisoners are of all classes of the lower people; soldiers, militiamen, and sheepskin clad peasants formed the bulk of those sad caravans I saw these last two mornings. One I was peculiarly struck with—a very old man, with a white beard, chained to a younger man, dragged his limbs along with pain and difficulty, his ragged clothes were covered with dust, and his broken boots bore the marks of travel. His cap was slouched over his face as if to conceal his features, and he turned as far as possible his head from his companion. The younger man, sullen and downcast, strode along with all the vigour of youth, and at times dragged the old man by the wrist as he quickened his steps to keep up with the quick march of the guard. Behind the soldiers there came a woman holding by the hand a boy of nine or ten years of age; the eyes of both were swollen and red with tears, which of the prisoners their affections were fixed it was impossible to say—whether it was the wife's or the mother's heart that was wrung by such bitter sorrow I know not, but that fidelity and affection and love animated that poor woman, footsore and haggard, and that boy, whose shoeless feet were trailed heavily after him in his pilgrimage, was certain, and the crime and law and justice were forgotten in the spectacle of so much suffering.

Entering the hotel with an undecipherable name, we clambered up a greasy stone staircase which led to the long corridor of many doors usual in such establishments, all white as limewash could make it, but pervaded by that dreadful and sickening odour so common in Russian interiors and with which we became only too familiar as our journey was extended, without, however, ever becoming accustomed or reconciled to it. The cause of this smell, which strikes one's nostrils as if palpably, and which gives the idea of some horrible atmosphere of cloggy, flabby, fatsoop, is beyond my knowledge or powers of investigation. It is a national curse. Without exaggeration it may be said to be a national evil, and how the population survive it is more than a man with an ordinary sense of smell can imagine. We found it at the Kerchka, at the Belok, in some of the houses at Balaklava, in the casemates of the Iledan and Malakoff, at Kerch, at Yenikale, at Kiburn, but I never encountered it in a Greek boat or a Tartar cabin. Our guide was the *tshelevak*, or waiter of the house—a white-haired, white-eyed, white but not clean faced, round-headed Russian in jackboots, loose Oriental trousers overflowing the tops thereof in festoons of threadbare grey cloth, and a tight tunic which had once been white also, and which resembled a collarless cotton shirt fastened round the waist by a pocket handkerchief. To be on good terms with your *tshelevak* in Russia is as important to your comfort as it is for you to be a favourite of the steward or butler in your club in London. "Tschelevak," or waiter, indeed, you may call him when desiring his services, but when he comes you must, if you expect much attention, address him affectionately as "brat" (brother), or "little brother," otherwise he will keep the literal meaning of his "si" (chasse) to the very letter. These two words, which you will hear everywhere in Russia, mean "this hour," like the French *tout à l'heure*, and colloquially signify "immediately," but, practically, in the mouths of postmasters, butlers, and waiters, they may be understood to be what they are, unless you employ coopeks and roubles to give them a different meaning. Our "little brother" showed us into a small room with one card-table therein, a picture of the Emperor, another of a battle representing one Cossack capering over the bodies of many Turks, said "si" (chasse), shut the door, and left us alone to our meditations for more than half an hour before he returned with the tea urn, and so we looked out of the dirty windows. A small body of cavalry happened to be passing while we were waiting, and it was curious to contrast the appearance of these men with that of the brilliant cavaliers we had seen at Moscow. Their thin, bony steeds, with dragged tails and rusty bits, seemed scarcely able to bear their riders, who were laden with bags of brown bread, and sat heavily on their coarse saddles. They were dressed in the grey military great-coat, and wore high and ugly shakos, covered with oilskin. Their trousers were tucked into their muddy boots, and the metal portions of their arms and dress were foul and discoloured. Like all the Russian cavalry, however, they had their long carbines, which were slung behind their backs, carefully covered with leather cases; their scabbards are of leather, so as to keep the edge of the blade keen and fit for use. Their appearance caused just as much attention in the town as that of a party of cavalry would have done in a country town in the United Kingdom. After a long delay the tea was made its appearance, and in came with it a dish full of boiled eggs and some fresh white bread; the tea was excellent, and so we had a capital breakfast off a very dirty tablecloth, with very jagged knives and quaint forks, served up on a service of coarse Russian blue and white de'f, of which the pattern was the most hideously grotesque kind of design in that way that could be fancied. It was nearly 9 o'clock ere we got off again. In fine weather Serpukhoff may look neat and even pretty. Now, with the streets full of mud and a drizzling rain falling, it was dismal and dirty to behold. It is said to have a good trade with Moscow, and some manufactures, and the waiter told us there had been many English employed there before the war, and that a few of them were still in the place. However, we did not meet or see any of our country people. At the distance of three miles outside the town, which is built in the wide straight streets, cutting each other at right angles, so much affected by the Russians, is about a brook, the Thames rivulet on which Serpukhoff is situated flows into the Oka. There is no bridge, but a swinging line of boats or pontoons does duty for one, and the tarantasses crossed over by means of it without any difficulty. The river was full of very long and very narrow boats, all filled with coarse hay. The rain began to fall heavily towards noon, and almost hid the country from view. The road was crowded for the whole of the journey with disbanded soldiers, dismissed from their service in compliance with the recent ukase ordering the reduction of the late levies which were made in anticipation of a continuation of the struggle. Poor fellows! their seemed to be a hard fate indeed—to travel thousands of versts, footsore and miserable, through the chill autumn and the approaching winter to their cheerless villages, and there to resume the occupations and toils of the mujik, after their gallant and devoted services. They

were clad in gray old greatcoats, and had been permitted to wear their military caps, trousers, and boots. Many of them were quite footsore, and crept along the muddy roads heavily leaning on their staves and walking-sticks. They generally kept in little parties of a dozen or twenty, for the sake of society and mutual aid most probably, and of such parties we passed a probably ten or twelve every hour. After a most tedious, uninteresting, and weary day of jolting, rain, and mud, we arrived at the Russian Birmingham, the town of Tula, at 11.30 p.m.

THE SOURCES OF ENGLAND'S WEALTH.

(From the Times, 13th January.)

THE commercial prosperity of this country may be said to depend mainly upon two things—coal and cotton. We are not indisposed to set a full value upon the enterprise of the Anglo-Saxon race, or to allow all credit to those national energies by which, under Providence, our national position is maintained; but that cotton and coal are the material instruments of our success is a proposition which we need be at no pains to establish. What, then, if it is now raised in the minds of our countrymen, is it some years since a man of marked eminence in thought and wisdom conceived such apprehensions about the gradual exhaustion of our coal beds that he publicly urged the prudence of economizing the yield at the very pit's mouth; but this is by no means the more perilous contingency of the two. Our coal pits can hardly fail us in a day, or a year, or in many years. The decline, if it arrived, would proceed by slow gradations, and with ample warning. Very different, however, is the case with cotton. In our consumption of this material we live literally from hand to mouth, and depend for supplies not upon stores apparently unfathomable, but upon the produce of yearly crops, exposed to all the accidents of season and culture. So we do, it will perhaps be said, for our daily bread is raised in found everywhere. Corn is raised in Bocting, Asia, Africa, and America, in localities so innumerable, and to an extent so immense, that plenty in one place may compensate for scarcity in another. We have known, in fact, what a bad harvest is, and great as are the sufferings it entails, we can mitigate the pressure and surmount the calamity. But since the cotton manufactures of Great Britain assumed their present dimensions we have never known a real failure of the cotton crop.

Perhaps this very fact may be taken by some people as conveying an agreeable kind of assurance that what never yet has happened probably never will. The truth is, however, not only that our whole experience is too short to yield materials for such induction, but that the extent of the demand, and therefore the importance of the supply, have prodigiously increased with prospects also of increasing still further. Cotton in its manufactured form represents nothing less than most convenient shape, and the demand for such produce must necessarily advance with the progress of civilization in every region of the world. There appears scarcely any limit to the amount of cotton manufactures which may be required as nation after nation and tribe after tribe become applicants for supplies; in other words, the field opened to our national industry would in itself be almost boundless. It is a proof, indeed, of the genuine character of the demand thus created that other countries help to meet it as well as ourselves, and that all advance at the same time. At the opening of the present century we imported annually into this country about 75,000 bales of cotton wool. We now import upwards of 2,000,000; but whereas the Continental Kingdoms, and above all, the United States, had then no manufactures at all, they now work up an amount of cotton almost equaling in the aggregate that consumed by ourselves. Taking the whole available cotton produce of the world at 4,000,000 bales annually, it is estimated that 2,100,000 bales go to Great Britain, and 1,900,000 to all other countries together.

The peculiarity of this supply, in which we thus hold a stake so enormous as to exceed the risks of all the world, is that it is raised almost entirely in one single country, while it is a fact equally striking that no natural necessity occasions this exclusiveness. Of the whole yield of cotton no less than five-sixths are produced in America, so that for almost all our supplies we are dependent upon crops which the same accidents or vicissitudes might affect. There is no distribution of casualties, no average of chances, no security of another. If things go well in America, cotton is plenty; if it goes ill in America, it is scarce. Even these facts do not convey all the urgency of the case. Such is the progress of demand and consumption both here and elsewhere, that it may be doubted how long the United States, even under the most favourable conditions, may be enabled to supply us. Our own consumption for the year 1855 is computed to have been double that of 1840, while that of other manufacturing countries increases also. Nothing can put the importance of the case in a stronger light than the fact that the Americans themselves evince uneasiness at the state of things, and would willingly see the field of supply expanded. The subjoined passage shows the view taken of the subject in a New Orleans publication of November last:—

The dependence of the world is on this country, which last year furnished about a third of a total product of 4,000,000. As the new lands of the West come into cultivation, and the progress of our commerce brings the crop within reach of the seaboard, to this extent there must be a limit, considering the nature of the climate and soil necessary, and the time and not very far distant when we shall fail to meet the demand. Under this state of things, it is not to be wondered at that the Government of England and France are putting forth every effort to foster the cultivation of cotton in their colonies. We have certainly no cause for fear or jealousy in view of these efforts. Not only are we as producers interested, but the philanthropist, alike have taken the matter into serious consideration. We can scarcely contemplate without emotion the disastrous results, commercially, politically, and socially, that might follow a general failure of only one crop in this country.

Such facts as these must be simply sufficient to show the urgent necessity of extending the cultivation of so invaluable a staple. Be it observed that the possibility of this extension is plain. The advantages of America in this respect may be great, but they are not unique. At this moment our cotton imports arrive nominally from five distinct regions of the world. Besides the United States there are Brazil, Egypt, the East Indies, and the West Indies—all professing to send cotton to our markets. Of our total imports in 1855 the four last-named countries contributed altogether 654,540 bales, leaving 1,623,565 to be supplied by America. The export of the West Indies is very small, and has of late been almost stationary. Of Egypt and Brazil it may be fairly said, that if the urgency of the demand itself has not operated to increase the supplies they send us, nothing else is likely to do so, but the resources of India are a far more hopeful prospect. That country—an empire of our own, teeming with population and yielding an inexhaustible field for culture—already far-

nishes considerably more than half of all the extra-American supplies; in fact, it sent us 396,014 bales in 1855, and 485,680 in 1856. There can be no reason why this crop should not be almost indefinitely increased. Capital is never wanting where returns are certain, and returns are certain where the demand is in advance of the supply. The great impediment hitherto experienced has been in the imperfect means of transport—an obstacle which, besides adding to the cost of cotton at the place of shipment, tended much to the damage of the article on the route. India, however, is now becoming opened by railroads, some of which are in part laid down, while others are projected in various directions, so that if to the facilities thus provided we add those likely to arise from improved river navigation, the principal difficulties in the way of cotton exportation ought soon to disappear. It should also be borne in mind that within the last 10 or 15 years vast additional tracts of Indian territory have passed under the control of the British Government. The spacious provinces of Oude and the Punjab now depend upon our rule for the development of their productive resources, and the Napore country, with its special cotton districts, is now our own. This, then, is a field to which our efforts may be directed. From any quarter cotton will be welcome, but India, which is so admirably adapted for its cultivation, and which itself shares so largely in the advantages of improved agriculture and extended commerce, presents an obvious attraction to our energies.

THE PRESENT POSITION OF JAMAICA.

(From the Morning Post.)

IN a memorial recently presented by West Indian merchants and others to Mr. Labouchere, Secretary of State for the Colonies, a picture is drawn of the existing condition of Jamaica which demands the most anxious consideration. The picture is a fearful one; and yet we grieve to say that no one can deny its truthfulness. The memorialists, however, do not rest contented with a gloomy recital of misfortunes; they state that the inhabitants of the island are themselves doing something for its salvation, and they also offer several excellent suggestions for effecting, by help from the mother country, as well as by local exertions, an amelioration of present evils. The memorialists inform Mr. Labouchere that "the material condition of the colony is at the lowest possible point short of universal bankruptcy and ruin. Real estate has no market value, dwelling-houses are gradually decaying, and money can with difficulty be raised, even in return for personal property. Most of the necessary articles of consumption are imported from the United States, while the natural products are neglected, and the money capital of the country is drained in the absence of any exchange of trade. The industrial condition of the inhabitants is at the lowest ebb, and their moral and social condition is not a whit more elevated." It appears that a "Royal Society of Arts" has been established in Jamaica for the purpose of developing the resources of the island, and that though struggling against the exigencies of poverty, this society has already rendered essential services. It exhibited a very important collection of objects at the Paris Exhibition. It is attempting the establishment of local industrial exhibitions; of an institution of arts, with its museum, library, and lecture-room; of industrial schools; of an experimental garden; and has a botanical magazine. These are healthy signs—noble indications of a movement in the right direction. But "the means are not at command in the island to enable the council of the society to act efficiently, and it is deemed necessary to make an urgent appeal to her Majesty's Government for assistance in this respect." The memorialists state that "the owners of the soil have not means enabling them to make extended experiments with new products; and the sources of public revenue are too cramped to enable the local government to supply the necessary aid. The island abounds with products of the highest promise, and it is essential that by accurate analyses, and other scientific tests, the uses and relative value of samples should be ascertained." In addition to a Parliamentary subsidy to sustain the Jamaica Royal Society of Arts in the difficulties incident to infancy and poverty, it is suggested that an annual grant might be given to the Kew Museum of Economic Botany, or to the London Society of Arts, to be applied to the ascertaining, by the aids of science, the probable market value of products supposed to be available as articles of commerce. The other leading suggestions of the memorial are, an educational grant; the adjustment between the Home and Colonial Governments of a plan for the immigration of settlers; an alteration of the franchise in favour of education; the establishment of an "island bank" connected with the public treasury; and the passing of an unencumbered estates act.

The two principal causes of the present deplorable condition of Jamaica are the evils engendered by the former system of slavery, and the sudden abolition of that system. The latter event placed the labouring population in a position for which they had not been prepared, and deprived the soil of their labour to an extent utterly disastrous. The low price of sugar which (with the exception of the last two years) has prevailed ever since the reduction of duty on slave sugar, has undoubtedly had a great share in reducing Jamaica to its present extremity: still the disastrous condition of the island has been chiefly induced by another cause—the want of steady, continuous labour. The more populous islands, such as Barbadoes, have not, like Jamaica and the thinly-peopled staples, fallen off in their production of the article. Not only has the supply of labour been diminished by the disinclination to work which characterises the Negro population, but likewise by the reduction in the number of the people by the scourges of smallpox and cholera. The mortality from the former disease arose from the neglect of vaccination, and the deficiency of medical assistance, which has been a serious evil since the abolition of slavery; the mortality from cholera, as official reports established, was enormously augmented by filth, and the want of the most ordinary hygienical resources. In 1850-51, a fifth part of the population was attacked with cholera, and it has been estimated that the consequent mortality amounted to fifty thousand. From this combination of causes a dearth of labour has arisen by which the island is threatened with universal bankruptcy and ruin. Want of labour is the main cause of the distress, and a supply of labour must constitute the principal source of relief. Hence the question of highest importance is, whence and by what means is this supply to be obtained?

The admission, in 1844, of slave and free labour sugar into our markets, upon payment of nearly the same duty, gave great encouragement to the slave trade. Again, the iniquitous system of taking into the ports of Cuba all slave ships captured in the Caribbean Sea, and "ap- prenticing" the Africans found on board of

them as labourers in the very island for which they were originally destined as slaves, has given an advantage to rivals, and has most unfairly deprived our West Indian colonies of labour to which they were entitled. It has also robbed the poor creatures who have been seized of that liberty which treaties have provided for them, for the servitude of the Cuban apprentices; to all intents and purposes, slavery. This monstrous system goes on unchecked, although our own beautiful Jamaica, within sight of Cuba, is pining for want of labour. Stating aside any other consideration, it is only truth to say that it were more humane to apprentice the liberated Africans in Jamaica, where the British Government has a staff of special magistrates to prevent the blacks from being oppressed. England has thrown every possible obstacle in the way of her own planters obtaining labour from Africa, although Africans are the only people fitted to cultivate the sugar-cane and till the soil under a burning sun. We are not "protectionists;" but we are disposed to think that there would not at this day have been a single slave either in Cuba or Porto Rico had England encouraged emigration to our West Indian colonies, and for a very few years protected free labour from competition with slave labour sugar.

It is not yet too late to do what is right. A few of the splendid gun-boats which are now lying idle in our harbours be commissioned to cruise round Cuba (not needlessly along the coast of Africa), and let all the Africans in the captured slave ships for a few years to come be taken into Jamaica, and our other colonies requiring labourers, there to serve for three years, as apprentices, after which period, if they desired it, to have free passages back to their own country. Few, comparatively, would, we think, elect to return to Africa; but, even should it be otherwise, the plan will be productive of great benefits. Our labour-wanting colonies will have had a valuable, though temporary, assistance, and the emancipated slaves will take back to their benighted nation many of the blessings of civilization and Christianity. Some, we are aware, believe that there are already enough of blacks in our West Indian possessions; but this is a mistake—the exposure to a burning sun required in the culture of the sugar-cane can only be endured by the negro race.

European labour is only available in the interior of Jamaica, in places where the thermometer is seldom over 70 degrees. In such situations European settlers are much wanted, and could not fail to prosper. They could there live very comfortably and prosperously by clearing the forest, splitting staves, making sugar, raising provisions, and cultivating for exportation, ginger, arrowroot, and very many other mountain productions which are at present utterly neglected. The climate of the whole of Jamaica has undeservedly got a bad name. If the salubrity and fertility of its magnificent mountain districts were adequately made known, a considerable tide of emigration from this and other countries of Europe could not fail to set in. Mr. Keith Johnson, in his essay on the "Geographical Distribution of Health and Disease," published within the last few months, in the Transactions of the Epidemiological Society, describes very accurately the climate of Jamaica. He says that "At Kingston the mean annual temperature is 80 degrees; while at Pleasant Hill, 4600 feet above the level of the sea, it is from 52 degrees to 65 degrees. In the mountains the climate is peculiarly healthy, and they are now a favourite resort for American invalids." In the same essay the author remarks that "Maroon Town and Phoenix Park are noted for healthiness, and while yellow fever rages in the low grounds and along the coast, cutting off thousands annually, those elevated regions enjoy a complete immunity from its attacks." In the course of some general observations upon yellow fever, he says, "It is truly astonishing how limited is the seat of yellow fever; and how securely the stranger may live in its vicinity, if he does not enter the infected circle." * * * The little town of Guanabacoa, within a few miles of Havana, and with which it is in constant communication, is said never to have had a case of the epidemic; and even in the nearest country houses around Havana and Casa Blanco strangers are perfectly safe while the disease is raging in the towns." The experience of life insurance companies and the statistical returns of the army fully corroborate these statements. Since the barracks have been removed from their former unhealthy sites in the plains to higher positions, there has been a very remarkable saving of life. The average annual mortality per thousand of soldiers stationed in Jamaica was one hundred and twenty-one during the twenty years ending with 1839, and only sixty-six during the ten years ending with 1848. In the year 1849, the average mortality per thousand was reduced to forty-eight, which is the present average. All this saving of life has resulted from the adoption of simple hygienical precautions, chiefly from removing dwelling-places from low grounds to the highlands. There is not in the whole range of the British dominions a field of fairer promise for industrious emigrants, possessed of only moderate means, than the salubrious highlands of Jamaica. If Government were to favour European emigration to Jamaica, great advantages would certainly accrue to the mother country, the colony, and the individual colonists. What is required is, an organized system of transit for intending settlers, a plan for the disposal of the Crown land on attractive terms, and an unencumbered estates act to remove obstacles in dealing with abandoned plantations and mountain districts, regarding which both the owners and the mortgagees are at present powerless.

The present position of Jamaica is eminently critical, but it is far from hopeless. It is hopeful because she is trying to help herself, and is therefore entitled to the assistance of the mother country in obtaining African labourers for the lowlands and European settlers for the highlands. Justice to Jamaica requires help of this description without delay. The interests of the English Crown are, moreover, greatly involved in this question; for, from geographical position, the loyalty of Jamaica is essential to the power and influence of England, especially when events may ere long occur in Cuba and the United States calculated to produce violent and sweeping political changes in the Western hemisphere.

AUSTRALIAN TRADE OF LIVERPOOL.—The Liverpool Chronicle, of January 3rd, states that during the past year 125 vessels left the Mersey, of an aggregate tonnage of 140,852 tons, while from the Thames during the same period 276 vessels sailed, of a tonnage of 299,012 tons. The average tonnage of the vessels leaving the Mersey was 1125 tons, while those from the Thames averaged 760 tons each. 17 vessels, carrying Government emigrants, have been despatched during the year from the Mersey, chiefly by the "Black Ball" and "White Star" line of packets. The nearly 7000 persons were sent from Liverpool by the Emigration Commissioners in the latter portion of the year 1856, and the emigration to Australia was very slack, but the receipt of favourable news the tide again turned, and the third and fourth quarters of last year bear a striking contrast to those of the preceding one. Above 16,000 persons were conveyed in private ships from Liverpool.

SHIPPING.

ARRIVALS.
 April 2.—Margaret Mitchell, ship, 380 tons, Captain Stiles, from Melbourne 24th ultimo. Coasting agent.
 April 2.—Governor, ship, 300 tons, Captain Stiles, from Melbourne 24th ultimo. Coasting agent.
 April 2.—Emma, schooner, 115 tons, Captain Brown, from Hobart Town 25th ultimo. J. C. and G. D. D. agents.
 April 2.—Victoria, ship, 300 tons, Captain T. H. Brown, from London 25th ultimo. J. C. and G. D. D. agents.
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All this is reasonable enough. A city cannot be kept in a habitable condition—the streets cannot be lighted—the numerous inconveniences cannot be remedied—badly-made paths cannot be repaired—excepting by the expenditure of money. The only point at issue among us is whether the money so contributed shall be wisely or extravagantly expended—whether it shall be spent in the dictation of men who will spend it in their own neighbourhoods for their own personal benefit, or by men whose past conduct ensures that they will pay some kind of regard to the claims of the citizens at large.

We have one word to say to persons who are qualified for the office of Alderman, but who are not likely to present themselves very readily for election. A man who has lived in the City for ten or twenty years, and who has accumulated an independence—who is thoroughly familiar with all our trading and social interests—who has derived from the support and favour of his fellow-citizens a large amount of his prosperity, who has an opportunity to serve them. We are aware that it is a difficult thing to encounter the kind of opposition which usually meets men who scorn the mean arts of popular delusion—who would not ask a vote, or acknowledge one in a servile spirit. A noisy, talkative, rowdy fellow, who will beat about in all corners and quarters, will often stand at the close of the poll in a position which fills men of sense and true patriotism with wonder and contempt, and induces them to scorn suffrages which are so meanly disposed of, and honour which are worn by persons so far beneath the average of official fitness.

It is only by fairly facing candidates of this sort that they can be put in their proper place. The division of the city into wards has brought duty more closely home to the citizens. They have not to complicate their movements with any district but their own. The field of their operations is brought within a close and ready view. They can see with their eyes through the list of voters, and without much difficulty ascertain whether there will be any chance of bringing in persons whose education and social habits—whose leisure and public spirit, will make them an honour to the Corporation, and worthy to dispose of its rather extensive patronage. Some names that have been mentioned are such as we hope we shall see no more of; others, such as Mr. Roney, Mr. Broughton, Mr. Thornton, Mr. Moses, Mr. Foss, Mr. J. Thompson, Mr. Lillidge, Mr. Hill, and some others named, would go a good way towards forming a corporation of which the citizens would have no reason to be ashamed. We do not expect or desire that it should be such a collection as might suit a Master of the Ceremonies. All we ask is that we shall have men of common sense and decent character—men who have something to lose—who will not talk twaddle, use obscene language, nor get drunk before breakfast.

We give in another column the melancholy details of the murder of Mr. James Price, formerly head of the convict establishment at Norfolk Island, and for the last few years inpector of penal institutions in Victoria. The Melbourne journals upon this lamentable event have raised a bitter controversy, in which it is difficult for anyone to sympathize who is simply in search of truth. One part of the press accuses the "committee of inquiry," which was formed after the Melville outbreak, with being the cause of this dreadful occurrence. Several conspicuous citizens, among whom were Dr. Cairns and other ministers of religion, thought the disclosures of that trial demanded the interposition of the public. It appears that a report was finally adopted and printed expressing the views of those gentlemen. By a leap which we can only account for in the excitement of the moment a part of the press imputes the death of this unfortunate officer to the mauling sentimentalism of this committee. The details which give colour to this charge are, however, such as will not fairly sustain it. By some means or other it appears that copies of this Report of the committee reached the prisoners, and that they possessed also a report of the trial of the persons charged with murder, arising out of the "rush" a few months ago. Those who are acquainted with the habits of prisoners and the skill with which they open communications, will scarcely hold the committee or any other persons responsible for the information they may obtain.

When corporal punishment was inflicted on prisoners for possessing pipes and tobacco in the very interior of a penal settlement, they did, nevertheless, obtain them, and we have no doubt often by the assistance of the men who were set to watch them. Had the prisoners, however, not obtained these Reports the constant addition to their numbers and the changes which take place in the passage of prisoners from gang to gang would have secured to them pretty full acquaintance with all that is passing in the world. No person can be responsible for their absolute seclusion, unless they are confined within the walls of a solitary cell, and unless those who guard them are themselves guarded.

The discipline of Mr. Price has been proverbial for many years for its crushing severity. Like other men who have disgraced and unpopular duties to discharge, we have no doubt he has often been vilified unjustly; we are not to expect to find in such an office a HOWARD or WHITEFIELD.

The parliamentary paper describing the discipline of Norfolk Island during his administration on the spot, were such as to create a very natural prejudice against this officer, and to suggest the fear that the severity of his discipline was not only needless, but often capricious and cruel. We were not surprised at the outbreak which took place at Williams Town some months ago, nor in the slightest degree astonished at the awful and lamentable termination of this gentleman's career. Instead, however, of condemning the general discipline enforced by Mr. Price, or in any way diminishing the popular sense of the ferocity and cruelty of his murderers, the lamentable catastrophe teaches the public an important lesson. Even the worst and basest of men cannot be governed simply by the influence of fear. Repeated and cruel punishments only weaken the dread of their infliction. When discipline at the penal settlements was infinitely worse than the public law would tolerate, crimes of awful violence and frequent execution showed how ineffective is mere coercion of which the main agent is resource is starvation and torture. Those in charge of these men often are greatly to be commiserated. The knowledge that the prisoners possess the physical power to turn upon them at any moment, has a tendency to produce alternately a bullying or a crouching spirit, as courage or timidity happen to be the prevailing characteristics. The brutal violence inflicted by constables and others under the administration of Mr. Price at Norfolk Island, if not at Williams Town, resulted from the

dread in which the warders and others lived of attacks from the men desperate and reckless of life. For the slightest manifestations of insubordination they have knocked down the prisoners and often stamped upon them, as these miserable wretches at Williams Town stamped upon the unhappy gentleman deceased. The proper result to draw from these frequent outbreaks is that the men whose crimes are such as to justify the discipline Mr. Price enforced, should be separated from each other, as well as from society. Whenever they meet and work together, their conversation from beginning to end is a tissue of blasphemy and threats. Those who would submit with docility to the slightest control, were they subject to a separate treatment, yet from the same moral weakness yield to the domination of tyrannical wretches—who live the scandal of the galleys which they have escaped. If we are not very now and then to be horrified by details like those which have recently occurred, the various colonies must incur such an expense as shall be requisite to preserve the most flagrant offenders from all contact with the world, and with each other.

Within the last few years there has been, no doubt, a manifestation of unnatural sympathy with the criminal class. The lenient spirit of the public has scarcely tolerated the restraint and coercion necessary for its own safety. The same temper which has so greatly reduced capital punishments, has lightened the chains of the felon, and endeavoured to gather around him as much of the comfort of existence as could be at all compatible with the idea of punishment. We are apprehensive that the increase of crime, partly to be attributed to the progress of civilisation itself, is giving rise to a new and not less dangerous class of prison theorists. The savage system of treating offenders against society may for a time be adopted, and even applauded, while the just views of men who look for amelioration not by fits of leniency and fits of severity, but by an improvement in the system of secondary punishment, will become the scorn and mockery of fools. It is easy to say "punish" and "crush." It is easy to accumulate instances of enormous crime, in order to direct public horror and hatred against criminals; but this violent remedy to a special grievance will not long have the sympathy of the public. It is not to be forgotten that these great criminals are human beings, and more or less open to Christian influences; and the deeply engraved convictions of Englishmen will never permit them to cast off the task of moral control which they are bound to seek over men in bondage, but whose lives they have spared.

MAURITIUS.

Wn have news from Port Louis, via Melbourne, to the 7th of February.

The interdiction which has been laid upon the migration of Coolies from the East Indies to Mauritius is still the subject of angry comment on the part of the press and the public. It is a measure which a planter from the island has been calling Coolies at Maracas, and has intercepted the outflow of these people to the West Indies. This proceeding has been complained of by the emigration agents at that port, and Mr Labouchere has, in consequence, written the following dispatch to the Secretary of State:

"I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 27th inst., and to inform you that it is not possible to me to allow a competition so mischievous to all British interests concerned, and I trust to the Mauritius Government for taking the necessary steps for putting an end to it. If this be found impracticable, it will be necessary to prohibit absolutely all immigration from Mauritius during the half year allotted to the West Indies, i.e., from 8 September to March inclusively; or to take some other official measure for securing the emigration agent against embarrassment in the discharge of his functions."

The heavy rains of the 5th caused almost an inundation.

to large rivers, the

in boats, and we regret that property in two or three stores was damaged. But with the evil there being no rain, the water in the drains and gutters drained off, and the drains clogged with filth and the slimy gutters from which emitted the most unhealthy odours which poisoned the air night and day have been well-washed. But they will soon be restored to their former state. Our town contains a few lower classes, but we little thought of cleanliness, and who live huddled together in the court yards of greedy proprietors or tenants, who think neither of their own health nor that of the public for the sake of the rent of their outhouses.

HONOLULU.

A GENTLEMAN who came as a passenger from the Hawaiian Islands to Sydney, per the William and Mary, has kindly handed us the following notes for our use.

Left Honolulu February 17th; in port, the clipper ship Apsara, bound off for New York; the brig Irene, Captain Mueller, cleared for Sydney on the 10th. The last month had been mild, and the whale feed larger than the previous season. The King's birthday, the 21st, was celebrated with a grand display by the military and foreign population, the War Department turning out in procession, preceded by the King's Band, to do honour to the occasion. At night a convivial meeting and quadrille-party took place at the palace. The King and native, are in favour of the present policy in Honolulu respecting the Danish question, or the "Hoola Hoola," as he natives term it. The Crown Attorney has prosecuted the offending parties. Unfortunately, a majority of the population, Danish and native, are in favour of this species of anarchy, consequently, at the trial it is possible to find a jury to convict. Count A. De Madsen, a Russian nobleman, left Honolulu in the whale ship Ocean, Captain Norton, for Tahiti, on the 31st of January, this gentleman was accompanied with marked respect by the Hawaiian nobles, the Captain and

Government. In
ment. After 1911:

part of the *Minister*, after having been a constant guest at the court of Brazil, he succeeded Mr. Bolivar, the Russian Minister, at Washington, U. S., in the autumn of 1854, in health bad to resign. He is at present travelling for his health, and purports to visit the colors. At Annapolis at the 14th of the past winter have been few. Raw and Co.'s pioneer ciders from California spent the winter in Honolulu, doing but poor business however. The Royal Hawaiian Theatre has been opened, and doing but middling. Among the country were Miss Louise and Sarah Graves, also Mrs. Widen. Mr. John Smith, the celebrated delineator of the American plantation-owners, played two successful engagements at the termination of the season, and the company left for California previous to the William and Martina sailing.

SITTING OF THE PARLIAMENT OF NEW SOUTH WALES.

To the Editor of the Sydney Morning Herald.
 Sir.—The accompanying statement will, I think, not stand unimpeaching to some of your readers. The representation has been made roughly, but I believe it to be substantially correct.

It will be seen that the sittings of the Assembly were very protracted, averaging nearly 7 hours and 20 minutes *per diem*, throughout the session; whilst the sittings of the Council exhibit a *daily* average of little more than two hours and three quarters.

Your obedient servant,
 ALQUIS.

Sydney, 2nd April, 1857.

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LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.				
Day	Longest Daily Sitting.	Shortest Daily Sitting.	Number of times Counted out.	Days
1st.	40 min. began 7.55 (13 March, 1857.)	20 min. (11 February, 1857.)	0.	5th

1857. 1-27th May, 6th August, and 2nd October, 1856.

LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.				
Longest Sitting.		Average Daily Sitting.		Days
Longest Daily Sitting.	Average Daily Sitting.	Longest Daily Sitting.	Average Daily Sitting.	Counted out.
40 min. began 7.55 (13 March, 1857.)	38 min. began 7.55 (13 March, 1857.)	40 min. began 7.55 (13 March, 1857.)	38 min. began 7.55 (13 March, 1857.)	11.

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TABLE 2. STATEMENT, SUMMER, 1897.		TABLE 3. STATEMENT, WINTER, 1897.	
Total Number of Boats sitting during "71 days.	197.	Average Daily Sitting during Season.	
hours, min.	2 40 2	hours, min.	7 19 44.
<p>* Opening day of season and day containing the maximum adjustment in hours per unit of population.</p>		<p>Average Daily Sitting during Season.</p>	
<p>Total number of boats sitting during "140 days.</p>		<p>hours, min.</p>	
<p>663 553</p>		<p>7 19 44.</p>	
<p>Equal to 38 days 1 hour 35 min.</p>		<p>* Opening Day and Foreclosing Day excluded.</p>	

